

Preparing for the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)

**Concepts and terminology related to Language, language use and the
Background to Language Learning and Teaching**

Grammar – Part 1

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Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language.

Unit 1 Grammar. Parts of Speech, the forms and use of grammatical structures. Key concepts for describing parts of speech and grammatical structures, their term or concept, meaning in language, form, example and use.

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Section 1 The Parts of Speech

Preparing for the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) of Cambridge University ESOL Examinations. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language.

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Introduction to Grammar. The three interrelated dimensions perspective: The form, meaning and use.

What is Grammar? Grammar is the set of rules that describes how words and groups of words can be arranged to form sentences in a particular language. Grammar is considered a set of rules and facts to be memorized by rote. But grammar of a language is a dynamic, constantly changing set of habit patterns that allows people to communicate with one another and must be considered as a guide for foreign people too. Some factors can affect grammatical choices: Sociolinguistic factors, information structuring principles, language change and usage, can be examples of this. The section of Grammar in TKT Module 1 is requiring that knowledge of the applicant it's being tested according to the perspective on "Grammar" provided by Diane Larsen-Freeman (1997). Speaking to students and teachers in applied linguistics, Larsen-Freeman views grammar as involving three interrelated dimensions – form, meaning, and use. This author states grammar teaching involves not just teaching the grammatical structures (forms), but also the meanings that grammatical structures express, and the appropriate contexts in which they may be used. This proposal has become quite influential in the field of language teaching, and provides a point of intersection between a linguistic perspective and the interests of English language professionals. At various points throughout this summary, it will be useful to refer back to this framework, as different topics impinge more directly on the form, the meaning, or the use of particular structures and functions. The essence of Larsen-Freeman's proposal is that grammatical structures are not isolated from their meanings or their uses. "Learning grammar" is not just a matter of learning arbitrary, boring, and unconnected rules, but rather it is learning how to accurately, clearly, and fluently express meaning in particular contexts. Every grammatical form, according to Larsen-Freeman, has a meaning and a use dimension, as well as its obvious structural features.

The content of this section of Grammar will describe each term or concept and all terms were added to each box into the 3 dimensions of each grammar term/concept that are required to answer TKT Exam Module 1. Section 1. Grammar. These 3 dimensions are: Form (structure), meaning (semantics) and use (pragmatics) of each grammatical term.

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 1. Parts of Speech, the forms and use of grammatical structures.

Term or concept	Meaning in language:	Form or example:	Use:
The Parts of Speech	Different parts in a sentence.	Traditional grammar classifies words based on eight parts of speech: The verb , the noun , the pronoun , the adjective , the adverb , the preposition , the conjunction , and the interjection .	Each part of speech explains not what the word <i>is</i> , but how the word <i>is used</i> . In fact, the same word can be a noun in one sentence and a verb or adjective in the next.

Section 2 The Article

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The articles “Small” words that express pragmatic status, such as identifiability. English has three articles the, ‘definite,’ a(n), ‘indefinite singular,’ and zero ‘indefinite plural.’

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form or example	Use
Definite article	<p>“The” is called the definite article because it usually precedes a specific or previously mentioned noun;</p> <p>These words are also listed among the noun markers or determiners because they are almost invariably followed by a noun (or something else acting as a noun).</p> <p>Strategy: Remember the uses of the definite article. It may be omitted when it should not be on the exam.</p>	<p>Form : The <i>Definite article + noun</i></p> <p>Exceptions: <i>We do not normally use "the" before "proper nouns", for example, the names of:</i></p> <p><i>people e.g. Jim is my brother. (Not: the Jim)</i> <i>days e.g. Today is Monday</i> <i>months e.g. My birthday is in May</i> <i>languages e.g. Italian is a beautiful language.</i> <i>countries and continents e.g. India is in Asia. exceptions:</i> <i>The United States and The United Kingdom</i></p> <p><i>cities towns and villages. e.g. Tokyo is a big city.</i></p> <p><i>streets e.g. My office is in West Street.</i> <i>cities & buildings e.g. I’m student at Chicago University.</i></p> <p><i>We normally use "the" with the names of:</i> <i>hotels e.g. Where is the Plaza Hotel?</i> <i>cinemas</i> <i>theatres and</i> <i>museums</i></p> <p><i>Oceans, seas and rivers e.g. Paris is on the River Seine.</i></p> <p><i>We use "the" before names with ..."of"</i> <i>e.g. I’m a student at the University of Chicago.</i></p>	<p>“The” is used with specific nouns. Is required when the noun it refers to represents something that is one of a kind: <i>The moon circles the earth.</i></p> <p>Is required when the noun it refers to represents something in the abstract: The United States has encouraged the use of the private automobile as opposed to the use of public transit.</p> <p>Is required when the noun it refers to represents something named earlier in the text. In a subsequent reference to this newspaper, however, we will use the definite article: There are situations, however, when the newspaper must determine whether the public's safety is jeopardized by knowing the truth. e.g. "I'd like a glass of orange juice, please," John said. "I put the glass of juice on the counter already," Sheila replied.</p> <p>Proper nouns: We use the definite article with certain kinds of proper nouns: Geographical places: the Sound, the Sea of Japan, the Mississippi, the West, the Smokies, the Sahara (but often not when the main part of the proper noun seems to be modified by an earlier attributive noun or adjective: We went swimming at the Ocean Park) Pluralized names (geographic, family, teams): the Netherlands, the Bahamas, the Hamptons, the Johnsons, the New England Patriots Public institutions/facilities/groups: the Wadsworth Athenaeum, the Sheraton, the House, the Presbyterian Church Newspapers: the Hartford Courant, the Times Nouns followed by a prepositional phrase beginning with "of": the leader of the gang, the president of our club Abstract nouns: Abstract nouns—the names of things that are not tangible—are sometimes used with articles, sometimes not: e.g. Books are made of ink, paper, and glue. (In this sentence, "books" is a noun, the subject of the sentence.) The storm upset my peace of mind. He was missing just one thing: peace of mind.</p> <p>It is used before a noun, singular, plural, count and non count when the noun is specific. When there is only one of the thing mentioned. When it is clear to both the speaker and the listener which thing or person is referred to. Before a noun mentioned for the second time. Before superlative adjectives. Before names of musical instruments. Before a singular noun representative of a class of things. Before decades and centuries. Before expressions of time and place. Before ordinal numbers. (not used with the cardinal numbers). When speaking about a specific noun. Before names of countries, states, cities, universities, colleges and schools that contain the word “of” and before of countries that have a plural name or have an adjective in the name, except for “Great Britain”. Before names of oceans, rivers, seas, gulfs and plural names of mountains, islands and lakes. (no article is used with singular mountains, islands and lakes). Before geographic areas but not before names of continents. Before the names of fields of study when they contain the word “of”. Before the names of wars. (not including the World Wars). Before the names of ships, planes, trains and people’s family names (the definite article is not used with the names of people and names of magazines).</p>

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Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form or example	Use
Definite article	Word that precedes generally specific nouns.	Form : The Definite article + noun	<p>It is used to mention public places like: the school, the prison, the hospital, the university, the college, the church. You can use "the" optionally. In these cases, we do not use "the" when we are thinking of the general idea of these places and what they are used for. With most other places, you need "the".</p> <p>In the case of words: bed, work, home.</p> <p>We say "go to bed/be in bed" (not the bed). e.g. It's time to go to bed now.</p> <p>but e.g. I sat down on the bed. (a specific piece of furniture)</p> <p>go to work/be at work/start work/finish work etc. (not the work):</p> <p>e.g. Chris didn't go to work yesterday.</p> <p>go home/come home/arrive home/get home/be at home: e.g. It's late. Let's go home.</p> <p>We say go to sea/be at sea (without the) when the meanings is go/be on a voyage.</p> <p>e.g. Keith works on ships. He is at se most of the time. but e.g. I'd like to live near the sea.</p> <p>When we are talking about things or people in general, we do not use "the":</p> <p>e.g. I'm afraid of dogs. (not the dogs)</p> <p>We say "most people/most books/most cars´ etc. (not the most..) e.g. Most hotels accept credit cards. (not The most hotels).</p> <p>We use "the" when we mean specific things or people.</p> <p>Compare:</p> <p>In general (without "the") e.g. Children learn from playing. Specific people or things (with the) e.g. We took the children to the zoo. (= a specific group, perhaps the speaker´s children)</p> <p>The difference between "something in general" and "something specific" is not always very clear.</p> <p>e.g. In general. I like working with people. Specific people or things. e.g. I like the people I work with.</p>

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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
The indefinite article	They are called indefinite articles because they are used to refer to something in a less specific manner (an unspecified count noun).	Form: a, an. <i>Indefinite article “an” + noun with vowel sound.</i> e.g. An apple. <i>Indefinite article “a” + Noun with consonant sound.</i> E.g. A pen_	“a” is used: <i>1 Before singular count nouns to mean “one” that begin with consonants. It is not used before non count nouns.</i> e.g. “Australia is a continent”. <i>2 Before singular count nouns that begins with a consonant sound,</i> <i>3 Before “u” when we pronounce /ju:/.</i> E.g. a university. <i>4 Before “h” when we do not pronounce “h”.</i> e.g. an hour, “An” is used : <i>1 Before a word that is a singular count noun that begins with a vowel sound (a, e, i, o, u) or vowel-like sounds.</i> When words that begin with an h sound often require an “a” (as in a horse, a history book, a hotel), but if an h-word begins with an actual vowel sound, use an an (as in an hour, an honor). We would say a useful device and a union matter because the u of those words actually sounds like yoo (as opposed, say, to the u of an ugly incident). The same is true of a European and a Euro (because of that consonantal "Yoo" sound). We would say a once-in-a-lifetime experience or a one-time hero because the words once and one begin with a w sound (as if they were spelled wuntz and won). When words begin with “h” or “u” either “a” or “an” can be used depending on the sound: e.g. an uncle, a university, a home, an hour, an honor. In a general statement: “An island is a body of land surrounded by water”. To introduce a subject that has not been mentioned before: “I saw a snake”. With certain numerical expressions. e.g. a dozen, a hundred. With names of professions. e.g. She is a biologist. He is an engineer.

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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Zero article	Its called "zero articles" when several kinds of nouns never use articles. Zero article means either that no article would be appropriate with that kind of noun or that that kind of noun can be used (in that context) without an article.	Idiomatic expressions <i>using be and go:</i> We'll go by train. (as opposed to "We'll take the train.) He must be in school. <i>with seasons:</i> In spring, we like to clean the house. <i>with institutions:</i> He's in church/college/jail/class. <i>with meals:</i> Breakfast was delicious. He's preparing dinner by himself. <i>with diseases:</i> He's dying of pneumonia. Appendicitis nearly killed him. She has cancer (You will sometimes hear "the measles," "the mumps," but these, too, can go without articles.) <i>with time of day:</i> We travelled mostly by night. We'll be there around midnight.	We do not use articles with: The names of languages ("He was learning Chinese." [But when the word Chinese refers to the people, the definite article might come into play: "The Chinese are hoping to get the next Olympics."]), The names of sports ("She plays badminton and basketball."), Academic subjects ("She's taking economics and math. Her major is Religious Studies.") When they are generic, non-count nouns and sometimes plural count-nouns are used without articles. "We like wine with our dinner. We adore Baroque music. We use roses for many purposes." But if an "of phrase" comes after the noun, we use an article: "We adore the music of the Baroque." Also, when a generic noun is used without an article and then referred to in a subsequent reference, it will have become specific and will require a definite article: "The Data Center installed computers in the Learning Center this summer. The computers, unfortunately, don't work." Common count nouns are used without articles in certain special situations: However, when we give a person's job title, or their unique position, we use "the" or zero article (i.e. no article), not a/an. Compare: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• She is been appointed (the) head of the company and• I'm a production manager at Fino. (=there may be more than one production manager) After the position of, the post of, or the role of we use zero article before a job title: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Dr. Simons has taken on the position of Head of Department. We usually use zero article (i.e. no article) before the name of an individual person or place. However, we use the- + When there are two people with the same name and we want to specify which one we are talking about: "That's not the Stephen Fraser I went to school with. But compare "There was a Stephen Fraser in my class". (=a person named Stephen Fraser). + When we want to emphasise that the person we are referring to is the most famous person with that name. Used this way, the is stressed and pronounced /ðɪ:/: + Do they mean The Ronald Reagan, or someone else? + With and adjective to describe a person, or another noun which tell us their job: The late Buddy Holly The artist William Turner + When we talk about a family as a whole: The Robinsons are away this weekend. With plural and uncountable nouns, zero article (i.e. no article) is used to talk generally, without definite people or things in mind. 'The' is used when we assume the listener or reader will understand who or what we are referring to, or when other words in the noun phrase make the reference specific. Compare: - The government has promised not to tax books. (= books generally) and, - The books have arrived (= the books you ordered) - Music played an important part in his life. (=music generally) and, - I thought the music used in the film was the part. (This particular music)

			<p>We often use zero article with the names of: holidays, special times of the year, months, and days of the week including Easter, Ramadan, New Year's Day. But compare:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- I'll see you on Saturday. (=next Saturday)- We met on Saturday. (=last Saturday)- They arrived on a Saturday as far as I can remember. (we are only interested in the day of the week, not which particular Saturday)- They arrived on the Saturday after my birthday. (a particular Saturday, specifying which one). <p>With winter, summer, spring, autumn, and New Year (meaning the holiday period), we can use either zero article or the:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- In (the) summer I try to spend as much time as I can in the garden. <p>We use 'the' when it is understood or we go on to specify which summer, spring, etc. we mean:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- I'd like to go skiing in the autumn. (=this year)- I first went skiing in the spring of 1992. <p>We say 'in the New Year' to mean near the beginning of the next year:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- I'll see you again in the New Year. <p>When we want to describe the features of a particular holiday, season, or other period of time and say that it was somehow special when compared with other, we can use it/That was... + a/an + noun + modifying phrase. Compare:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- That was a winter I'll never forget. (= compared to other winters it was unforgettable) and,- That was the winter we went to Norway (= a statement about a particular winter) <p>When we want to describe the features of a particular holiday, season, or other period of time and say and that it was somehow special when compared with others, we can use It/That was + a/an + noun + and modifying phrase. Compare:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- That was a winter I'll never forget. (= compared to other winters it was unforgettable) and,- That was the winter we went to Norway. (= a statement about a particular winter). <p>We use zero article with times of the day and night such as midnight, midday and noon:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- If possible, I'd like it finished by midday.- Midnight couldn't come quickly enough. <p>But notice that we can say either the dawn or dawn:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- He got back into bed and waited for (the) dawn. <p>We use the + morning/afternoon/evening for a day which is understood or already specified:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- I enjoyed the morning, but in the afternoon the course was boring. But compare: <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Morning is the time I work best. (=mornings in general; The morning... is also possible)- I'll be there by (the) morning/evening. (but.. by the afternoon, not...by afternoon)- I waited all morning. (more usual than all the morning/afternoon, etc)
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			<ul style="list-style-type: none">- ‘You look upset.’ Yes, I’ve had a terrible morning.’ (=compared to other mornings) <p>We use by + zero article to talk about means of transport and communication, including go/travel by car/taxi/bus/plane/train/air/sea; contact/communicate by post/email/phone.</p> <p>Compare:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- I generally go by bus to work. And- I generally take the bus to work. <p>We often use zero article in patterns where repeated or related words are joined by a preposition and used with a general meaning:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- The government makes grants according to criteria that differ from region to region. Other examples include person to person, back to back, end to end, face to face, side by side, start to finish, day by day, put pen to paper.
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Section 3 The Noun

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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Nouns	A noun is a word used to name a person, animal, place, thing and abstract idea.	There different types of Nouns: <i>Singular and Plural Nouns.</i> <i>Countable and Uncountable Nouns.</i> <i>Proper Nouns.</i> <i>Collective Nouns.</i> <i>Compound Nouns.</i>	These words are used to describe names of people, places, things, qualities, ideas or activities.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Singular and plural nouns	Noun that indicate number. Plural Noun: Noun that change their form to indicate number by adding “-s” or “-es”. E.g.- box -> boxes. Types: Regular and irregular plural nouns.	<i>1 The plural of most nouns is formed by adding “-s”. E.g. song -> songs.</i> <i>2 Final “-es” is added to nouns that end in “-sh”, “-ch”, “-s”, “-z” and “-x”. E.g. box- > boxes.</i> <i>3 The plural of words that end in a consonant + “-y” is spelled “-ies”. e.g. baby -> babies.</i> <i>4 The nouns in (d) have irregular plural forms that do not end in “-s”. e.g. – man -> men</i> <i>5 Some nouns that end in “-o” add “-es” to form the plural.</i> e.g. potato -> potatoes tomato-> tomatoes <i>Some examples of nouns (irregular) that do not end in “s”.</i> e.g. foot -> feet goose -> geese mouse -> mice tooth -> teeth child -> children man -> men woman -> women person -> people deer -> deer sheep -> sheep <i>6 Nouns that end in “-ics” like mathematics, physics, politics or athletics are always singular.</i>	Sometimes we use a plural noun for one thing that has two parts. These words are plural, so they take a plural verb: e.g. My trousers are too long. (not my trousers is) You can also use a "pair of" + these words: Those are nice jeans or That’s a nice pair of jeans. I need some new glasses or I need a new pair of glasses. Sound nouns end in -ics, but are not usually plural. For example: athletics, economics, electronics, gymnastics, maths. e.g. Gymnastics is my favourite sport. News is not plural. Some words ending in -s can be singular or plural verb. For example: audience, committee, company, family, firm, government, staff, team. These nouns are all groups of people. We often think of them as a number of people (=they), not as one thing (=it). So we often use a plural verb:

	<p>7 Some nouns that end in “-o” add only “-s” to form the plural. e.g. radio -> radios</p> <p>8 Some nouns that end in “-o” add either “-es” or “-s” to form the plural (with “-es” being the more usual plural form). e.g. tornado -> tornadoes tornado</p> <p>9 Some nouns that end in “-f” or “-fe” are changed to “-ves” to form the plural. e.g. thief -> thieves</p> <p>10 Some nouns that end in “-f” simply add “-s” to form the plural. e.g. belief -> beliefs</p> <p>11 Some nouns have the same singular and plural form. e.g. one fish -> two fish (is also possible “fishes” but rarely used).</p> <p>12 Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plurals: Criterion (latin) -> criteria Datum -> data Crisis -> crises.</p> <p>13 Nouns ending in a consonant + “y” (e.g. -ty, -ly) take away the “y” and add “-ies”. City → cities Family → families</p>	<p>The government (=they) want to increase taxes. The staff at the school (=they) are not happy with their new working conditions.</p> <p>In the same way, we often use a plural verb after the name of a sports team or a company: Italy are playing Brazil next week (in a football match).</p> <p>A singular verb (The government wants../Shell has..etc.) is also possible.</p> <p>We use a plural verb with police: The police are investigating the murder, but haven’t arrested anyone yet. (not The police is.hasn’t)</p> <p>We do not often use the plural of person (persons). We normally use people (a plural word): e.g. He’s a nice person but They are nice people.</p> <p>We think of a sum of money, a period of time, a distance etc. as one thing. So we use a singular verb:</p> <p>Twenty thousand pounds (=it) was stolen in the robbery. (not were stolen).</p>
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Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Countable Noun	Noun with both a singular and a plural form and it names anything (or anyone) that you can count. Countable nouns are the opposite of non-countable nouns and collective nouns.	Form: A countable noun can be singular or plural: banana →bananas. May be preceded by “a/an” or “one”. e.g. a chair, one chair. Takes a final “-s/es” in the plural. e.g. a cell -> some cells one cell -> two cells Some count nouns are irregular and do not take an “-s” in the plural. e.g. man -> men woman-> women child -> children foot -> feet tooth -> teeth fish -> fish	It can be used with numbers. E.g. one banana → two bananas. Singular countable nouns can be used with a/an. e.g. a beach, a students, an umbrella. You cannot use singular countable nouns alone (withouth a, the, my etc.) e.g. I want a banana (not I want banana). You can use plural countable nouns alone: e.g. I like bananas. (bananas in general). You can use plural countable nouns with some, many, any and few. E.g. We sang some songs.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use														
Uncountable Nouns	<p>Noun which does not have a plural form and which refers to something that you could (or would) not usually count. Non countable nouns are similar to collective nouns and are the opposite of countable nouns. These nouns cannot be counted because they come in a mass or in an uncountable form.</p> <p>Strategy: Look for a noncount noun that is pluralized where it generally should not be.</p>	<p>1. - <i>Is not immediately preceded by “a/an” or “one” in the singular.</i> E.g. information.</p> <p>2. - <i>Has not plural form so doesn’t add a final “-s/-es”.</i></p> <p>E.g. some information, a lot of information.</p>	<p>This list is a sample of nouns that are commonly used as non-count nouns. These nouns are not usually plural: so we don’t say “breads”, “furnitures”, etc.</p> <p>1.-<i>Whole groups made up of similar items:</i> baggage, food, money, mail, furniture, traffic, news (is uncountable, not plural, e.g. The news was very depressing, not The news were.</p> <p>2.- <i>Fluids:</i> water, milk, blood, alcohol, coffee, beer, juice, tea, vinegar, washing up liquid, wine, oil, petrol, honey, jam.</p> <p>3.- <i>Solids:</i> ice, chees, paper, cotton, gold, bread, meat, lamb, money, peanut, pepper, pork, beef, food, grass, plastic, silver, gold, toothpaste, butter, wood, wool, trousers.</p> <p>4.- <i>Gases:</i> air, pollution, fresh air, oxygen.</p> <p>5.- <i>Particles:</i> salt, rice, flour, sugar, sand, snow.</p> <p>6.- <i>Abstractions:</i> accommodation, beauty, behaviour, chaos, damage, fun, justice, luck, luggage, music, time, energy, power, pressure, sadness, confusion, experience, entertainment, happiness, love, luck, patience, peace, time, hope, advice, forgiveness, information, knowledge, noise, permission, progress, scenery, speed, weather, work.</p> <p>7.-<i>Languages:</i> Chinese, French, Mexican, etc.</p> <p>8.- <i>Fields of study:</i> History, Music, art, education, literature.</p> <p>9.- <i>Recreation:</i> tennis, chess, bridge, etc.</p> <p>10.- <i>Activities:</i> driving, studying, traveling, shopping, washing up, work, pay, lightning. Travel means travelling in general, we don’t say a travel to mean a trip or a journey. E.g. We had a good trip. (not a good travel).</p> <p>11.- <i>Natural phenomena:</i> weather, fog, rain, wind, electricity, fire, space, sunshine, steam.</p> <p>Uncountable nouns cannot be used with numbers. We cannot say “one rices”, “two rices”, etc. You cannot normally use a/an with uncountable nouns. But you can often use “a……of” e.g. a bowl/a packet of grain. You can use uncountable nouns alone (withouth the/my/some etc.) e.g. I eat rice everyday. You can use some, any, much and little with uncountable nouns. E.g. I have a little work to do.</p> <p>Many nouns can be used as countable or uncountable nouns, usually with a difference in meaning. E.g.</p> <table><tr><th>Countable</th><th>Uncountable</th></tr><tr><td>Did you hear a noise just now? (= a specific noise)</td><td>I can’t work here. There’s too much noise. (not too many noises).</td></tr><tr><td>I bought a paper to read. (= a newspaper)</td><td>I need some paper to write on. (=material for writing on)</td></tr><tr><td>There’s a hair in my soup! (= one single hair)</td><td>You’ve got very long hair. (not hairs) (= all the hair on your head)</td></tr><tr><td>You can stay with us. There is a spare room. (= a room in a house) I had some interesting experiences while I was travelling. (=things that happened to me)</td><td>You can’t sit here. There isn’t room. (=space)</td></tr><tr><td>Enjoy your trip. Have a good time!</td><td>They offered me the job because I had a lot of experience. (not experiences) I can’t wait. I haven’t got time.</td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table>	Countable	Uncountable	Did you hear a noise just now? (= a specific noise)	I can’t work here. There’s too much noise. (not too many noises).	I bought a paper to read. (= a newspaper)	I need some paper to write on. (=material for writing on)	There’s a hair in my soup! (= one single hair)	You’ve got very long hair. (not hairs) (= all the hair on your head)	You can stay with us. There is a spare room. (= a room in a house) I had some interesting experiences while I was travelling. (=things that happened to me)	You can’t sit here. There isn’t room. (=space)	Enjoy your trip. Have a good time!	They offered me the job because I had a lot of experience. (not experiences) I can’t wait. I haven’t got time.		
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Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Proper Noun	A noun that represents the name of a specific person, place or thing. The names of days of the week, months, historical documents, institutions, organizations, religions, their holy texts and their adherents are proper nouns.	e.g. - Halifax, Monday, Abraham.	Used in: <i>The names of the days:</i> Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday. <i>Weeks.</i> <i>Months.</i> <i>Historical documents.</i> <i>Institutions.</i> <i>Organizations.</i> <i>Religions.</i> <i>Holy texts and their adherents.</i>

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Collective Noun	<p>A noun naming a group of things, animals or people. Usually it thinks of the group as a whole is generally as one unit. A collective noun is A noun that refers to a group, or collection, of beings, for example, <i>audience, class, committee, crowd, gang, herd, jury, party, team</i>. It is possible for singular collective nouns to be followed either by a singular or a plural verb form (see number):</p> <p><i>The audience was delighted with the performance.</i> <i>The audience were delighted with the performance.</i></p> <p>The first of these options is normal in American English. In British English both options are found.</p> <p>The collective nouns can refer to:</p> <p>1. - <i>A single impersonal unit,</i> 2. - <i>A singular gender-neutral pronoun,</i> 3. - <i>A collection of various individuals, a plural pronoun.</i></p>	<p>E. G. Jury, couple, committee, crowd, class, family, government, staff.</p> <p><i>A <u>crowd</u> of people.</i> <i>A <u>swarm</u> of bees.</i> <i>A <u>herd</u> of cows.</i> <i>A <u>flock</u> of sheep.</i> <i>A <u>pack</u> of wolves.</i> A herd of elephants.</p>	<p>1.- <i>Collective nouns are used for things:</i> A group of islands, galaxy of stars, a wad of notes, a forest of trees, a stack of wood, a fleet of ships, a string of pearls, an album of stamps/autographs/photographs, a hedge of bushes, a library of books, a basket of fruit, a bowl of rice, a pack of cards, a pair of shoes, a bouquet of flowers, a bunch of keys, a chest of drawers, a pack of lies, a range of mountains, a cloud of dust.</p> <p>2.- Collective nouns are used for animals: catch of fish, army of ants, flight of birds, flock of birds, haul of fish, flock of sheep, herd of deer/cattle/elephants/goats/buffaloes, hive of bees, litter of cubs, host of sparrows, team of horses, troop of lions, zoo of wild animals, pack of wolves, litter of puppies/kittens, swarm of bees/ants/rats/flies, team of horses/ducks/oxen, murder of crows, kennel of dogs, pack of hounds.</p> <p>3.- collective nouns for people: class of students, army of soldiers, choir of singers, crew of sailors, a band of musicians, bunch of crooks, crowd of people/spectators, gang of thieves, group of dancers, team of players, troupe of artists/dancers, pack of thieves, staff of employees, regiment of soldiers, tribe of natives, audience of listeners, panel of experts, gang of labourers, flock of tourists, board of directors.</p> <p>For more see in wikipedia: standard english terms and terms following the middle english tradition.</p>

Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language. Unit 1 Grammar. Parts of Speech, the forms and use of grammatical structures. Key concepts for describing parts of speech and grammatical structures, their term or concept, meaning in language, form, example and use. Unit 1. Grammar. Section 3.The Nouns

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Compound Noun	<p>A noun is made from two words that are used together to make one word or idea. The first noun acts as an adjective to the second noun and usually does not take "s". The second noun can be plural.</p> <p>A compound is a word which contains two or more other words, for example <i>goldfish</i> (consisting of <i>gold</i> + <i>fish</i>), <i>left-handed</i> (consisting of <i>left</i> + <i>hand</i> + <i>-ed</i>), and <i>gas cooker</i> (consisting of <i>gas</i> + <i>cooker</i>). We cannot rely on punctuation (for example, the use of a hyphen) to identify a compound. What makes a compound a compound is rather the ability of its parts to 'stick together' as a single word for purposes of pronunciation, grammatical behaviour and meaning. In English, there is a particular tendency for two nouns to combine together into a single compound noun (for example, <i>air+port</i>, <i>security+officer</i>). Moreover, there is a further tendency for such compounds to combine with other nouns or compounds into still larger combinations, for example <i>airport security officer</i>, <i>real estate tax shelter sales people</i></p>	<p>Forms of compound Noun:</p> <p><i>a)Closed form, (the words are melded together e.g. firefly)</i></p> <p><i>b)Hyphenated word, (e.g. daughter-in-law)</i></p> <p><i>c)Open form,(e.g. full moon)</i></p> <p>E.g.- headquarter, stockyard, bunkhouse.</p> <p>We can form compounds nouns in these ways:</p> <p>noun + noun</p> <p>a buglar alarm, a car park, current affairs, traffic lights.</p> <p>noun + -ing form</p> <p>air conditioning, food poisoning, power dressing</p> <p>-ing form + noun</p> <p>a dining room, a driving licence, opening hours.</p> <p>Other combinations of words:</p> <p>mother-in-law, feedback, make-up, lateral thinking, passer-by, software, sunshine, upbringing.</p> <p>! - We can write compound nouns as one word, two words or with a hyphen.</p> <p>Some compound nouns are written as one word or hyphenated, depending on the dictionary referred to:</p> <p>dishwasher/dish-washer,</p> <p>eyewitness/eye-witness.</p> <p>FORM.</p> <p>In a compound consisting of <i>noun +noun</i>, often the second noun gives the general class of things to which the compound belongs and the first noun indicates the type within this class.</p> <p>The first noun usually has a singular form: an address book.</p> <p>However, there are a number of exceptions. These include-when the first noun only has a plural form.</p> <p>e.g. a savings account.</p> <p>when we refer to an institution(an industry, department) such as</p> <p>e.g. the building materials industry</p>	<p>You can use two nouns together (noun+ noun) to mean one thing/person/idea etc.</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>a tennis ball, a bank manager, a road accident, income tax.</p> <p>The first noun is like an adjective. It tells use what kind of thing/person/idea etc.</p> <p>For example:</p> <p>a tennis ball = a ball used to play tennis.</p> <p>a road accident = an accident that happens on the road.</p> <p>So you can say:</p> <p>A television camera</p> <p>Compare:</p> <p>garden vegetables (=vegetables that are grown in a garden)</p> <p>a vegetable garden (=a garden where vegetables are grown)</p> <p>Sometimes the first word ends in -ing. Usually these are things used for doing something:</p> <p>a washing machine, a frying pan, a swimming pool.</p> <p>Sometimes there are more than two nouns together: world swimming championships.</p> <p>When two nouns are together like this, sometimes we write them as one word and sometimes as two separate words, for example:</p> <p>a headache, a toothpaste, a weekend,</p> <p>Note the difference between:</p> <p>a sugar bowl and a bowl of sugar,</p> <p>When we use noun + noun, the first noun is like an</p>

		<p>Note that to make a compound noun plural we usually make the second noun plural: e.g. coal mine(s) office-worker(s)</p> <p>B) Sometimes a noun+ noun is not appropriate and instead we use noun+ -'s + noun (possessive form) or noun + preposition + noun. In general, we prefer noun + 's + noun-</p> <p>* When the first noun is the user (a person or animal) of the item in the second noun: e.g. a baby's bedroom.</p> <p>* When the item in the second noun is produced by the thing (often an animal) in the first: e.g. duck's eggs.</p> <p>* When we talk about parts of people or animals; but we usually use noun + noun to talk about parts of things: e.g. a woman's face, a pen top. We prefer noun+ preposition + noun -</p> <p>* When we talk about some kind of container together with its contents. e.g. a cup of tea, a tea cup.</p> <p>* When the combination of nouns does not refer to a well-known class of items. e.g. income tax, a tax on children's clothes.</p> <p>* In the phrases "bird of prey", "rule of thumb", "Chief of Staff", "commander-in-chief", "sister-in-law". Notice that we usually make a plural form of these phrases by making the first noun plural. However, we can say either sisters-in law or sister-in-laws (and brothers-in-law or brother-in-laws, etc.) Some compound nouns are made up of verbs and prepositions or adverbs, and may be related to a two-or-three-word verb. e.g. Mansen broke out of the prison by dressing as a woman. (escaped) Countable compound nouns like this have a plural form ending in -s. e.g. read-out(s), exceptions: looker(s) on, runner(s)-up. We can form other kinds of hyphenated phrases that are placed before nouns to say more precisely what the noun refers to: a state-of-the-art. day-to-day</p> <p>Plurals and Possessives. The possessive of a hyphenated compound is created by attaching an apostrophe -s to the end of the compound itself: my daughter-in-law's car, a friend of mine's car. To create the possessive of pluralized <i>and</i> compounded forms, a writer is wise to avoid the apostrophe -s form and use an "of" phrase (the "post genitive") instead: the meeting of the daughters-in-law, the schedule of half-moons. Otherwise, the possessive form becomes downright weird: the daughters-in-law's meeting, friends of mine's cars.</p> <p><i>The Chicago Style Manual</i> suggests that if singular nouns can act as attributive nouns — <i>city</i> government, <i>tax</i> relief — then plural nouns should be able to act as attributive nouns: consumers group, teachers union. This principle is not universally endorsed, however, and writers must remember to be consistent within a</p>	<p>adjective. It is normally singular, but the meaning is often plural. For example, a bookshop is a shop where you can buy books, an apple tree is a tree that has apples.</p>
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		<p>document.</p> <p>For hyphenated forms, the pluralizing -s is usually attached to the element that is actually being pluralized: daughters-in-law, half-moons, mayors-elect. The <i>Chicago Manual of Style</i> says that "hyphenated and open compounds are regularly made plural by the addition of the plural inflection to the element that is subject to the change in number" and gives as examples "fathers-in-law," "sergeants-in-arms," "doctors of philosophy," "and courts-martial" (196).</p> <p>The NYPL <i>Writer's Guide</i> puts it this way: "the most significant word — generally the noun — takes the plural form. The significant word may be at the beginning, middle, or end of the term". And then we get examples such as "attorneys at law," "bills of fare," chiefs of staff," notaries public," assistant attorneys general," "higher-ups," "also-rans," and "go-betweens."</p> <p>Note: some dictionaries will list "attorney generals" along with "attorneys general" as acceptable plurals of that office. Whether that's a matter of caving in to popular usage or an inability to determine the "significant word" is unknown.</p> <p>As a general rule, then, the plural form of an element in a hierarchical term belongs to the base element in the term, regardless of the base element's placement:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• first <u>sergeants</u>• <u>sergeants</u> major• <u>sergeants</u> first class• colonel <u>generals</u> [Russian]• lieutenant <u>generals</u>• lieutenant <u>colonels</u>• apprentice, journeyman, and master <u>mechanics</u>• deputy <u>librarians</u>• deputy assistant <u>secretaries</u> of state.	
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Section 4 The pronoun







Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language.
Unit 1 Grammar. Parts of Speech, the forms and use of grammatical structures. Key concepts for describing parts of speech and grammatical structures, their term or concept, meaning in language, form, example and use. Unit 1. Part 1. Grammar. Section 4.The Pronouns.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Pronoun	Pronouns are ANAPHORIC words, which means that they are tools that speakers use to refer to (or “mention”) participants and props on the discourse stage. They are sometimes treated as a special subclass of nouns, because pronouns distribute like determiner in phrases, clauses, and discourses.	The pronouns can be demonstrative, personal, interrogative, indefinite, relative, reflexive, intensive, possessive and object pronoun.	Use is according to each type of pronoun.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Demonstrative Pronoun	Word that points to and identifies a noun or a pronoun. These words refer to things that are nearby or further away either in space or in time.	<p>The demonstrative pronouns are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- “this”, “these”- “that”, “those” <p>This, that + (singular noun) These, those + (plural noun)</p> <p>These flowers are beautiful. Those flowers are beautiful. This flower is beautiful. That flowers is beautiful.</p>	<p>We use “this” and “these” when something or someone is near. We use “that” and “those” when something or someone is not so near. We can use “this”, “that”, “these” and “those”:</p> <p>Before a noun. e.g. letter, man Without a following a noun. e.g. This is for you.</p> <p>“This” and “that” are used to refer to singular nouns or noun phrases and “these”, “those” are used to refer to plural nouns and noun phrases.</p>

Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language.

Unit 1 Grammar. Parts of Speech, the forms and use of grammatical structures. Key concepts for describing parts of speech and grammatical structures, their term or concept, meaning in language, form, example and use.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Personal Pronoun (or Subject pronouns)	PERSONAL PRONOUNS are words that are used to refer to participants that are judged by a speaker to be already present or ACTIVE in the mind of the audience. Something that is judged to be already “on stage” and uniquely identifiable may be referred to with a personal pronoun. This kind of words refer to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender and case. A subjective personal pronoun indicates that the pronoun is acting as the subject of the sentence.	The subjective personal pronouns are:  “I”  “you”  “she”  “he”  “we”  “they”. “it”	In a place of a noun. The noun it refers to is called the “antecedent”. When it is the subject of a verb. e.g. They live south of the equator. When the subjects of the two clauses are compared. e.g. They’re more protected against the cold than we (are). Before the verb “to be”. e.g. “It is he with the egg”. Before “as” and “than”. e.g. “She is not as tired as he (is)”. We use a subject pronoun before a verb. e.g. is, has got, are Note that we also use “it” to talk about: the time e.g. It’s 2 o’clock days e.g. It’s Monday today the weather e.g. It’s sunny distances e.g. It’s 4 kilometres the town centre. We do not normally leave out subject pronouns. It’s cold today. We use “it” for time/day/distance/weather. e.g. What time is it? What day is it?

Unit 1. Part 1. Grammar. Section 4 The Pronouns.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Interrogative Pronoun	Pronouns that replace the missing information in content questions. All interrogative pronouns contain the letters “w” and “h” in written English.	Nominative: who, what. Accusative: who/whom Nom/Accusative, alternative: which. Genitive: whose/who’s whose/who’s Location: where Source: whence Destination: whither Time: when Manner, means, extent: how Reason: why/wherefore What + without/with a noun Which + noun (things or people) Which + without noun (just for things) Who + without a noun (for people) How + adjective/adverb (tall, big, old, far, often, long, much).	Words used to ask and make questions. "Who" refers to people, and can be used as subject, object or complement. "Whom" is used as a formal alternative to who as object, and also directly after prepositions. "Which" is used to refer to people when we want to identify somebody in a group. And we are thinking about a small number of possibilities. And we can use which instead of "who" to talk about particular classes of people. We usually use which, rather than "who" or "what", in questions before one(s) and of, as which is commonly used to ask or talk about a choice between one or more things. When we use "who" or "what" as subjects, the verb that follows is usually singular, even if a plural answer is expected. However, the verb can be plural in echo questions after a plural subject or a subject consisting of two or more noun phrases joined by "and". And when "who" and "what" function as complements. We use "how", not "what", to ask - a general opinion on something. about general health. about preferences relating to food and drink. We use "what", not "how", to ask- a general opinion on something with "What..like?" for details with "What..like/hate (etc)about..?" about the consequences of something with "What if..?" about the naming of something in the question. We use either "what" or "how"- To make a suggestion with "What/How about..?" To ask for more information in the question How/What do you mean? Whose: We can use "whose" to ask about the person that owns or is responsible for something. It can be used with or without a noun. "Whose" can be used either before a verb. e.g. Whose are these boots? or before a noun or noun phrase (as a determiner) introducing direct or indirect questions. In formal contexts we can use a preposition before "whose". However, in questions without a verb a preposition comes before "whose". e.g. We're meeting at nine. In whose house?

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Indefinite Pronoun	Is a pronoun referring to and identifiable but not specified person or thing. An indefinite pronoun conveys the idea of all, any, none or some.	<i>All, another, any, anybody, anyone, anything, each, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, somebody, someone.</i>	In indefinite nouns.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Relative pronouns	<p>Words that link one phrase or clause to another phrase or clause. A relative pronoun is a word that introduces a relative clause and simultaneously expresses the relativized element. In English, as in many other languages, the set of relative pronouns is similar, but not identical, to the set of interrogative pronouns.</p> <p>Strategy: It is important to make sure that the relative pronoun agrees with the subject.</p>	<p>Form: who, whom, whose, which, that. The compounds: (-ever) whoever, whomever, whichever.</p> <p><u>Who</u>: refers to people or animals. <u>Whom</u>: refers to people and household animals. It is used in the object position in the formal written English or with "who" plus a preposition in Spoken English.</p> <p><u>Whose</u>: refers to people, animals and things. It shows possession.</p> <p><u>Which</u>: Refers to things, collective nouns and animals.</p> <p><u>That</u>: Refers to people, animals and things.</p>	<p>We use it to identify/describe the person/thing/place in the main clause. Is used to refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence.</p> <p>We use "who" in a relative clause when we are talking about people (not things).</p> <p>You can also use "that" (instead of who), but you can't use which for people: e.g. The woman that lives next door is a doctor.</p> <p>Sometimes you must see who (not that) for people. When we are talking about things, we use "that" or "which" (not who).</p> <p>"That" is more usual than "which", but sometimes you must use "which".</p> <p>What= "the thing(s) that". e.g. Everything that happened was my fault. The machine that broke down is now working again.</p> <p>Remember that in relative clauses we use who/that/which, not he/she/they/it: e.g. I've never spoken to the woman who lives next door. (not the woman she lives)</p> <p>We must use who/that/which when it is the subject of the relative clause. Sometimes who/that/which is the object of the verb. e.g. The woman who I wanted to see was away on holiday.</p> <p>When who/that/which is the object, you can leave it out. e.g. The dress that Liz bought or The dress Liz bought doesn't fit her very well.</p> <p>We cannot use "what" in sentences like these: Everything (that) they said was true.</p> <p>Whose We use "whose" in relative clauses instead of his/her/their. e.g. We saw some people their car had broken down or We saw some people whose car had broken down.</p> <p>We use "whose" mostly for people. e.g. A widow is a woman whose husband is dead.</p> <p>Whom Whom is possible instead of "who" when it is the object of the verb in the relative clause. e.g. The woman whom I wanted to see was away.</p> <p>We can also use "whom" with a preposition (to whom/from whom/with whom etc). e.g. The people with whom I work are very nice. But we do not often use "whom" in spoken English. We usually prefer "who" or "that", or nothing.</p> <p>Where We can use "where" in a relative clause to talk about a place. e.g. The restaurant where we had a dinner was near the airport.</p>

Unit 1. Part 1. Grammar. Section 4 The Pronouns.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Reflexive Pronoun	A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun referring back to the subject of the clause or sentence. The expression “by” + a reflexive pronoun means “alone”.	<i>Myself, yourself, herself, itself, himself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.</i>	<p>We use reflexive pronouns when the subject and the object are the same.</p> <p>Expressions "by myself", "by yourself" = alone or without help.</p> <p>We can use reflexive pronouns for emphasis. (To emphasize the subject noun or pronoun it refers to and to emphasize the fact or the subject did the action alone.) e.g. Alex repaired the car herself. (Nobody else repaired it) He takes care of the egg himself.</p> <p>As the object of a verb when the subject and object are the same. e.g. They stand together to protect themselves from the cold.</p> <p>As the object of the preposition “by” when the subject did the action alone. e.g. The penguin chick is unable to get food by itself.</p> <p>We do not use myself/yourself/himself/herself/itself, etc after feel/relax/concentrate/meet: e.g. I feel nervous. I can’t relax. You must try and concentrate. (not concentrate yourself). What time should we meet? (not meet ourselves, not meet us).</p> <p>We normally use wash/shave/dress withouth “myself” , etc. e.g. He got up, washed, shaved and dressed. (not washed himself).</p> <p>It can be used one another instead of each other: How long have you and Bill known each other? Or..known one another?</p> <p>We also use reflexive pronouns in another way. E.g. Who repaired your bike for you? I repaired it by myself.</p>

Unit 1. Part 1. Grammar. Section 4 The Pronouns.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Intensive Pronoun	An emphatic reflexive pronoun that emphasize its antecedent. Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns.	Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns. The intensive pronoun can immediately follow a noun or pronoun. E.g.- I myself believe that aliens should abduct my sister. The Prime Minister himself said that he would lower taxes.	Is a pronoun used to emphasise its antecedent.
Possessive Pronoun	This pronoun show what belongs to someone and the relationship between two or more people. They do not appear directly after a noun.	<i>Mine, yours, his, its, hers, ours, yours, theirs.</i>	To replace a possessive adjective and a noun. e.g. “She takes her turn and he takes his (turn)”. We use possessive pronouns without a noun. e.g. Is this book mine or yours? After the verb “to be”. e.g. the egg is hers. After the preposition “of” when it means “one of many”. e.g. “It is a habit of theirs”. To replace the second possessive adjective and noun when they are being compared. e.g. “Their life seems more difficult than ours”.

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 4 The Pronoun.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
Object Pronoun	A word which replaces an object noun or an object noun phrase.	Form: <i>me, you, him, her, it, us, them.</i> e.g. - Him, her.	Is used: We use an object pronoun after a verb (e.g. see, help, like) and after a preposition (e.g. with, for, at) We do not normally leave out object pronouns. e.g. Peter is horrible, I don’t like him. When it is the direct object of a verb. E.g. He leaves after she returns. When the objects of two clauses are compared. E.g. It is easier form them than us.

Section 5 The Subject

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 5 The subject.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Subject	A subject may consist in the noun or phrase that goes before the verb to show who is doing the action in an active sentence.	Form: <i>Subject + verb + object</i>	The subject may take various forms: A noun. E.g. The woman wrote a book. A pronoun. E.g. She wrote a book. A clause. E.g. What she wrote amazed everyone. A Gerund. E.g. Writing was her talent. A Gerund phrase. E.g. Writing poetry was her talent. An infinitive. E.g. To write requires special talent. An infinitive phrase. E.g. To write a poetry in Latin requires special talent.

Section 6 The Adjective

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 6 The Adjective.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
The Adjective	An ADJECTIVE is a word that refers to an attribute, such as color, size, shape, temperament, or other PROPERTY CONCEPTS.	<p>E.g.- hideous, small, large, yellow, Easier, red, etc.</p> <p>Types of Adjectives: <i>Demonstrative adjectives</i> <i>Possessive Adjectives</i> <i>Interrogative Adjectives</i> <i>Indefinite Adjectives</i> <i>Comparative adjectives</i> <i>Superlative Adjective</i></p> <p>Form:</p> <p><i>Adjective + noun</i> <i>Be + adjective</i> <i>Look/feel/smell/taste/sound + adjective</i></p>	<p>The adjective is used before a noun. These kind of words uses to modify a noun or a pronoun by describing, identifying or describing quantity words. An adjective usually precedes the noun or the pronoun which it modifies. These words usually describes or give information about a noun, pronoun or part of the sentence. The ending of an adjective is always the same.</p> <p>Many adjectives can be used either before the noun they describe, or following linking verbs such as appear, be, become, feel, get and seem.</p> <p>Some adjectives are seldom or never used before the noun they describe. These include:</p> <p>- Some adjectives formed by adding a prefix "a-", often to a noun or verb: afraid, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep, awake, aware.</p> <p>Some of these adjectives with an "a-" prefix have related adjectives that can be used either before a noun or after a linking verb. Compare:</p> <p>Other pairs like this include: afraid-frightened, alike-similar, alone-lone, asleep-sleeping.</p> <p>Some adjectives used to describe health and feelings: content, fine, glad, ill (but note "ill health"), sorry (un)sure, upset (but "an upset stomach"), (un)well (but He's not a well man).</p> <p>These adjectives are sometimes used between an adverb and noun. e.g. A terminally ill patient.</p> <p>Qualitative adjectives The categorising of adjectives might seem interesting but unimportant, except for the fact that qualitative adjectives can be graded. By putting certain words in front of them and grading them we can comment on how much of the quality the noun has. Compare these three phrases: an intelligent student a highly intelligent student a fairly intelligent student The use of highly and fairly makes an extremely big difference to the meaning. Qualitative adjectives can also be comparative or superlative: ABSOLUTE big beautiful COMPARATIVE bigger more beautiful SUPERLATIVE biggest most beautiful Single syllable adjectives and certain two-syllable adjectives add -er and -est. Most adjectives of two syllables and almost all of three or more syllables use more and most</p>

			<p>Classifying adjectives</p> <p>Classifying adjectives cannot be graded. For example it would be odd to describe a school prize-giving as a highly annual event. Even so, sometimes people break this 'rule' to achieve a special effect, for example: She was looking very pregnant. The word people make most fuss about is unique. Since this adjective means 'the only one of its type', they object that it is impossible to have something that is very unique. On the other hand, there is nothing wrong with saying that something is almost unique. Other examples of classifying adjectives are:</p> <p><i>Agricultural chemical daily female.</i> <i>Golden magic private standard.</i></p> <p>Ordering</p> <p>As we have seen, it is possible to put a string of adjectives in front of a noun to modify it. English is quite fussy about the order in which the adjectives are placed. We learn this as we learn the language and most native speakers would have no difficulty in recognising that the adjective order in this phrase is wrong: <i>a wooden grey large house.</i></p> <p>The general order is:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Qualitative adjectives2. Colour adjectives3. Classifying adjectives. <p>So it should be:</p> <p><i>a large grey wooden house.</i></p>
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Unit 1. Grammar. Section 6 The Adjective.

Term or concept	Meaning in language	Form and example	Use
The Adjective	An ADJECTIVE is a word that refers to an attribute, such as colour, size, shape, temperament, or other PROPERTY CONCEPTS.	<p>E.g.- hideous, small, large, yellow, Easier, red, etc.</p> <p>Types of Adjectives: <i>Demonstrative adjectives</i> <i>Possessive Adjectives</i> <i>Interrogative Adjectives</i> <i>Indefinite Adjectives</i> <i>Comparative adjectives</i> <i>Superlative Adjective</i></p>	<p>Emphasising adjectives are used to emphasise your feelings about something.</p> <p>e.g. I felt a fool. I felt a complete fool. (for emphasis)</p> <p>Some emphasising adjectives (such as complete, and also absolute, entire, mere, sheer, total, utter) are seldom or never used after a linking verb.</p> <p>e.g. It was a total failure.</p> <p>Classifying adjectives are used to say that something is of a particular type. For example, we can talk about "democratic decisions", where "democratic" distinguishes them from other types of decision. Other classifying adjectives include: atomic, chemical, cubic, digital, environmental, medical, phonetic, annual, general, occasional, northern, maximum, minimum, underlying.</p> <p>Classifying adjectives are seldom or never used after a linking verb.</p> <p>e.g. A nuclear explosion.</p> <p>Qualitative adjectives are used to give the quality that a thing or person has. We use them either directly before a noun or after linking a verb.</p> <p>e.g. A beautiful sunset & The sunset was beautiful.</p> <p>Note that some classifying adjectives can also be used with different meanings as qualitative adjectives and placed after a linking verb.</p> <p>Other adjectives like this include: academic, conscious, educational, (il)legal, scientific.</p> <p>Many adjectives can be used immediately after a noun, at the beginning of a reduced relative clause.</p> <p>For example-</p> <p>-Adjectives before a to-infinitive, or a prepositional phrase as part of the adjective phrase.</p> <p>-Some "-ible" and "-able" adjectives such as: available, imaginable, possible, suitable. However, we use these adjectives immediately after a noun "only" when the noun follows "the" or when the noun is made definite by what follows in a relative clause.</p> <p>The adjectives concerned, involved, opposite, present, proper, responsible. These words have different meanings when they are used "before" a noun and immediately after it.</p>

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 6 The Adjective.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Possessive adjectives	Similar or identical to a possessive pronoun. These adjectives are always used with nouns.	Form: my, your, his, her, its, our, their. <i>Possessive adjective + noun</i> e.g. My hands, our hands, his mother, etc. What is your phone number? What is your phone number. (Here the possessive adjective is “your” is used to modify the noun phrase “my assignment” functions as an object).	It is used as an adjective and modifies a noun or a noun phrase. We use a possessive adjective before a noun (e.g. name, camera) to say who the noun belongs to.
Interrogative adjective	It modifies a noun or noun phrase rather than standing on its own.	Form: which, what. e.g. “Which plants should be watered twice a week?”.	It is used to modify nouns.
Comparative adjective		It makes the comparative adding “-er”. e.g. tall → taller “Danny is taller than Paul”. Form: <i>comparatives (adjective with end “-er” with short words, “more” for longer words) + than.</i>	Used to compare two people, places, etc. The comparative form is “-er” with short words (one syllable) e.g. cheap -> cheaper We also use “-er” for two syllable words that end in “-y” (-y -> ier). We use “more”.. for longer words (two syllables or more). You can use “-er” or “more” with some two syllable adjectives, especially: e.g. clever, narrow, quiet, shallow, simple. A few adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparative forms: e.g. good/well -> better
Demonstrative Adjectives	Word that...	Form: this, that, these, those, what. <i>Demonstrative adjective + noun</i> e.g. This apartment needs to be fumigated.	They are identical to the demonstrative pronouns but are used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrases.

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 6 The Adjective.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Indefinite Adjective	Is similar to an “indefinite pronoun” except that it modifies a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.		
Superlative adjective	Form of adjective used to distinguish one person, thing, etc. from the rest of its group. e.g. Danny is the tallest boy in the class.	<i>Adjective with 1 syllable and 2 syllables that end in “y” it makes superlative adding “-est”. Or “most”.</i> <i>Adjective ends in a vowel + a consonant it doubles the consonant.</i> e.g. big → biggest <i>Adjective ends in consonant + “-y”, it changes the “-y” to “-i”.</i> e.g. lazy → laziest. <i>“the” + superlative adjective.</i> e.g. <i>The longest, the most famous.</i>	In general, we use “-est” for short words and “most”.. for longer words. The rules are the same as those for the comparative. e.g. long -> longest. Most boring/most difficult. A few adjectives are irregular. e.g. good -> best -> bad -> worst, far -> furthest. We use superlatives after superlatives and we normally use “in” with places: e.g. What’s the longest river in the world? For a period of time, we normally use “of” e.g. Yesterday was the happiest day of my life. We often use the present perfect (have done) after a superlative. e.g. That was the best holiday I’ve had for a long time.

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 6 The Adjective. Participle adjectives.



Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Participle adjectives ("ing"/ "ed" adjectives)	These are many pairs of adjectives that end in "ed" and "ing". "ing" adjectives are called present participle adjectives, while "ed" adjectives are called past participle adjectives. Some-ing forms (present participles) and -ed forms (past participles) of verbs can be used as adjectives.	<p><i>participle adjective + noun (that adjective describe)</i></p> <p><i>linking verb + participle adjective</i></p> <p>e.g. The hotel had a welcoming atmosphere.</p> <p>Many compound adjectives include a participle adjective. Common patterns are:</p> <p><i>adverb + -ed participle.</i></p> <p>e.g. They are well-behaved children.</p> <p><i>adverb + -ing participle.</i></p> <p>e.g. China's economic boom is generating a fast-growing market at home.</p> <p><i>adjective + -ed participle.</i></p> <p>e.g. She seems to live on ready made frozen meals.</p> <p><i>adjective + -ing participle.</i></p> <p>e.g. He's the longest-serving employee in the company.</p> <p><i>noun + -ed participle.</i> e.g. The public square was tree-lined.</p> <p><i>noun + -ing participle.</i> e.g. I hope it will be a money-making enterprise.</p> <p><i>-ed participle + participle (from two-word verbs)</i></p> <p>e.g. Did it really happen, or was it a made-up story?</p>	<p>We can use many participle adjectives immediately after nouns when they identify or define the noun. This use is similar to defining relative clauses and they are often called "reduced relatives".</p> <p>e.g. I counted the number of people waiting. We had to pay for the rooms used. (or..the rooms that were used.)</p> <p>Some of these are rarely used before the noun: e.g. None of the candidates applying was accepted.</p> <p>Participle adjectives like this include: caused, found, included, provided. Others can be used before or immediately after nouns. e.g. Rub the area infected with this cream or Rub the infected area with this cream.</p> <p>Participle adjectives like this include: affected, alleged, allocated, broken, chosen, identified, interested, remaining, resulting, stolen.</p> <p>In formal English, that and those can be used as pronouns before a participle adjective. e.g. The quality of the motors is lower than those manufactured elsewhere.</p> <p>Notice that those can mean "people". e.g. Here is ome advice for those (=people) preparing to go on holiday.</p> <p>We can use some participle adjectives only in adjective compounds. For example, we can't say"..behaved children" or "..a making enterprise" as the sense is incomplete withouth the adverb or noun. Other compounds like this include: London-based, Paris-born, brick-built, easy-going, peace-keeping, long lasting, good looking, home-made, hair-raising, far-reaching, well-resourced, sweet-smelling, strange-sounding, soft-spoken, sour tasting, nerve-wracking.</p> <p>Notice that many other compound adjectives do not include participle adjectives: e.g. The problem is short-term. It was just a small-scale project.</p>

Section 7 The Preposition

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 7 The Preposition.











Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Preposition	Words that connect a noun, noun phrase or pronoun to another word or phrase. Precedes noun phrases and are grammatical functors that precede determined noun phrases (DPs)6 to specify the SEMANTIC ROLE of the DP to the rest of the clause. They include words like above, at, in, of, with, around, on, under, beside, through, inside, before, and opposite. Several kinds of semantic roles are expressed by prepositions. Some prepositions are made up of more than one piece, including out of, by means of, in spite of, instead of, up to, up against, on top of, upon, etc. Many prepositions also function as post-verbal particles, as in get in, pick up, switch off.	Prepositional phrase: preposition + noun phrase. e.g. After, at, towards.	They are used to

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Prepositions of place	Word that links nouns, pronouns and phrases. Usually indicates the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of its object to the rest of sentence.	Form: among, at, behind, beneath, between, by, in, into, out of, front of, next to, on, onto, off, opposite, over, under, underneath.	<p>Across, along: We swam across the river. (= from one side to the other). They walked along the path towards the bridge. (=They followed the path towards the bridge.)</p> <p>Among, between: We use between with two or more people or things that we see as individual or separate, and we see the people or things as part of a group or mass. Among is only used with three or more people or things. e.g. She held the diamond between her thumb and forefinger. He stood among all his friends in the room and felt very happy.</p> <p>Note that amongst is sometimes used instead of among, but in more literary contexts.</p> <p>He disappeard among the crowd. (=through a group of people). We often fly between London, Paris to Rome, from Rome to London) I sat down between Jane and Sue. (=in the space that separated Jane and Sue).</p> <p>Between and among are not only used as prepositions of place. For example, we can use either to talk about something divided or shared between people. e.g. The money is to be divided between/among the towns in the area.</p> <p>We also use between: To talk about comparisons and relationships (e.g. with the words association, balance, comparison, connection, contrast, correlation, difference, distinction, link, relationship). e.g. There should be a better balance on the committee between the various ethnic groups.</p> <p>To talk about choices. e.g. I have to choose between the universities of Leeds, York and Manchester.</p> <p>To talk about discussions or the results of discussions when we specify the two or more people or groups involved. e.g. There was a disagreement between Neil, John and Margaret.</p> <p>To say that people or things share an amount of something. e.g. Between them, Ray and Ingrid must earn about \$10,000 a year.</p> <p>We also use among - When we mean "existing or happening in a particular group". e.g. The disease has now broken out among the hill tribes.</p> <p>When we mean "included in a particular group". They are among the best hockey players in the world.</p> <p>Above, below: To talk about position when something is higher or lower than something else: The mountains tower above the town. Water was dripping onto the floor below.</p> <p>Beneath, underneath: To talk about something that is higher or lower than something else. There may be contact between or a distance: I felt the warm sand beneath/underneath my feet.</p> <p>Beside, next to, inside, outside: To show position in relation to an object, container or enclosed space: put it on the table beside/next to the bed. I'll meet you inside/outside the theatre.</p> <p>By: I stood by the window. (=close to). They walked by the river. (=close to, along).</p> <p>In, into, out of: To talk about enclosed places (a place with three dimensions): I'll wait for you in the car. (position). Could you get in/into/out of the car? (movement).</p>

			<div><p>On: A surface. A line.</p></div> <div><p>At: a point.</p></div>
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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Prepositions of time		<p>Form:</p> <p>The prepositions of time are:</p> <p><i>At, ago, by, before, during, for, in, on, for, past, since, while, about, from, to, until/till, within, through, over, throughout.</i></p> <p><i>For + period of time</i></p> <p><i>Since + the start of the period.</i></p> <p><i>By (+ a time)</i></p>	<p>Use:</p> <p>At: <i>certain points of the day, holidays, hours, certain type of meal during the day. (at breakfast, at lunch, at dinner). With clock times or ages:</i> at nine o'clock, at (the age of) fifteen. <i>With points or periods of time:</i> at time: at the beginning/end, at present, at Ramadan, at the weekend, at lunch, at night.</p> <p>Ago: (=before now). We use "ago" to talk about th past.</p> <p>By: We use "by" in many expressions to say how we do something. e.g. by post, by phone, by email, by fax. But we say pay cash or pay in cash. (not by cash).</p> <p>We also say by mistake/by accident/by chance. e.g. We met by chance. But we say "do something on purpose" (=you mean to do it)</p> <p>Note that we say "by chance", "by cheque", etc. (not by the chance/by a cheque). In these expression we use by + noun without the or a.</p> <p>In the same way we use by.. to say how somebody travels: by car/by train/by plane/by boat/by ship/by bike/by bus. by road/by rail/by air/by sea/by underground.</p> <p>But we say "on foot". e.g. Did you come here by car or on foot?</p> <p>You cannot use "by" if you say my car/the train/a taxi etc. We use "by" + noun without "a/the/my etc.</p> <p>It is used for passive. e.g. The programme was watched by millions of people.</p> <p>When we talk about the author of a music song, painting or a book. e.g. A play by Shakespeare/a painting by Rembrandt.</p> <p>When we talk about measurements, salaries or incomes. e.g. Carl won by about three metres. Clare has increased by \$200. e.g. They'll inform us of their decision by the end of the month. (=not later than the end of the month).</p> <p>before: I never go to bed before midnight. I'll meet you after the class.</p> <p>during: with a period of time: I worked during the summer. (=all through the summer) She was ill during the summer (=at some point/period of time in the summer). We use "during" or "in" to talk about a period of time within which an event or activity occurs. The activity may continue for the whole of the period of time. Or the event may happen at some time, or be repeated a number of times, in the period of time. e.g. I stayed at home during the summer.</p> <p>We use "during", rather than "in", to mean "at some time in the period od" before nouns such as illness, holiday, meal, stay, treatment and visit, when we refer to an event which lasts sometime. And also with the phrase "the whole (of)", emphasising duration of an entire period. However, if we talk about a short event that happens within a period of time, we prefer "during". e.g. During a pause in the conversation, she left the room.</p> <p>e.g. The President made the speech during a visit to Madrid. No-one was allowed to leave the ship during the whole of its time in port.</p> <p>For: Is used to say "how long" <i>with periods of time:</i> hours, one week, two months, three years. They lived in Poland for three years.</p> <p>From.. to: They drove from London to Edinburgh in a day.</p> <p>In: <i>parts of the day, months, years, seasons and centuries:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- In the morning/afternoon/evening in February, in 2006.- In the autumn, in the last century.

			<ul style="list-style-type: none">- I'll see you in a hour (=after an hour)- I wrote an essay in a day. (It took me a day to write my essay.) <p>On: <i>with days or dates:</i> on Monday, on 25th September, on the morning, of 4th June, on a good day, on Christmas Day.</p> <p>Past: We worked past midnight. (=up to and beyond midnight)</p> <p>Since: Is used to say "how long" <i>with starting points in time:</i> yesterday, last week, two months ago. E.g. September, the last time that we saw them.</p> <p>Through: She worked through the night. (=during and to the end of the night)</p> <p>Throughout: Note that we can use "throughout" to mean that short events happen continuously within a period of time. e.g. She sneezed throughout the performance.</p> <p>Until/till: We use "until" to say that something continued or will continue to a particular time, and by to say that something happened or will happen either before a particular time or at that time at the latest. Note that "till" can be used instead of "until". It is particularly common in conversation, but rarely found in formal writing. e.g. We have to be at home until 2:30.</p> <p>We can use "until now" to talk about a situation that will not continue beyond now: e.g. Supermarkets say that until now there has been little consumer interest in buying organic produce.</p> <p>Notice, however, that we don't use "until now" for a situation that will or may continue into the future. Instead we can use "so far" or, in formal contexts, "to date". E.g. The ticket is valid until/till March. (=It will not be valid after March.). He slept from midnight until/till eight o'clock. (Then he woke up).</p> <p>Up to: In informal contexts we can use "up to" or "up till" instead of until. We commonly use "up to/till"with now and with "then". e.g. I've just bought a computer. I've always used a typewriter up to now.</p>
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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Prepositions of movement	Word that you put before a noun to show position.	<p>Form: Prepositions of movement are:</p>  <i>across</i>  <i>along</i>  <i>down</i>  <i>into</i>  <i>off</i> <i>onto,</i>  <i>out of</i>  <i>over</i>  <i>through,</i>  <i>up</i>  <i>past.</i>	<p>Across, over: Use to talk about a position on the other side of, or moving to the other side of a road, bridge, border, river, etc.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- We can use across or over to talk about a position on the other side of, or moving to the other side of a road, bridge, border, river, etc.- The track came towards them across/over the bridge.- Once she was across/over the border, she knew she would be safe. <p>Use over rather than across when we talk about reaching the other side of something that is high, or higher than it is wide. Compare:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- He jumped over the fence into the garden, and- He jumped across the stream. <p>When we are talking about something we think of as flat surface, or an area such as a country or sea, we prefer across rather than over:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- He suddenly saw Sue across the room. – The figures moved rapidly across the screen,- The programme was broadcast across Australia. <p>We prefer all over rather than all across to mean 'to or in many different parts of an area'. However, we commonly use across, or right across for emphasis:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- The disease has now spread all over the world. (or...(right) across the world.) <p>Along, through: When we talk about following a line of some kind (a road, a river, etc.) we use 'along': <i>They walked along the footpath until they came to a small bridge.</i></p> <p>We use through to emphasise that we are talking about movement in a three dimensional space, with things all around, rather than a two dimensional space, a flat surface or area: <i>He pushed his way through the crowd of people to get to her.</i></p> <p>Through often suggests movement from one side or end of the space to the other. Compare: <i>She walked through the forest to get to her grandmother's house, & She spent a lot of free time walking in the forest.</i></p> <p>Above, over, below, under, beneath, underneath, throughout: We can use either above or over when we say that one thing is at a higher level than another: <i>Above/Over the door was a sign saying, 'Mind your head'.</i></p> <p>However, we prefer above, when one thing is not directly over the other. Compare: <i>They lived in a village in the mountains above the lake. (not directly over) & The bird hovered just a few metres above/over the lake. (directly over).</i></p> <p>We use over, not above, when something covers something else and touches it: <i>She put a quilt over the bed.</i></p> <p>And usually when we are talking about horizontal movement at a higher level than something: <i>I saw the helicopter fly out over the water, near the fishing boat.</i></p> <p>Below: is the opposite of above, under is the opposite of over. The differences in the uses of below and under are similar to those between above and over (see above):</p>

			<p><i>It's hard to believe that there is a railway line below/under the building. (at a lower level).</i> <i>Her head was below the level of the table so nobody noticed her (not directly under)</i></p> <p>She did the presents under a blanket. (the blanket covers and touches the presents) Esther ran under the bridge. (horizontal movement at a lower level)</p> <p>We can use underneath as an alternative to under as a preposition of place. Beneath is sometimes used as a more formal alternative to under or below. We can use throughout to emphasise that something is in every part of a place: <i>The flower is found throughout the island. The same laws apply throughout Europe.</i></p> <p>On, onto, off: To talk about a surface or line: There were some lovely pictures on the wall. (position). She walked on the pavement. (movement). She stepped onto the grass. (=movement: from the pavement onto the grass). Shall we take that mirror off the wall? (movement).</p> <p>Over, under: To talk about something that is higher or lower than something else. Over and under, not above and below, are used to show position when there is contact between things or to show movement: I'm wearing a coat over my jacket and a sweater under it. (contact). They flew over France. (movement). We sailed under the bridge. (movement).</p> <p>On top of, against: There's a letter on top of the cupboard. The cat rubbed against my legs. Opposite: There's a car park opposite the hotel.</p> <p>Past: <i>She walked past me without saying 'hello'. (=movement: up to and beyond)</i></p>
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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Prepositions of manner		Form: despite, like, of, with, withouth.	

Section 8 The Adverb

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 8 The Adverb.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Adverb	Word that modify a verb, an adjective, a phrase or a clause. Indicates manner, time, place, cause or degree and answers questions such as “how”, “when”, “how much”.	e.g. Completely, quickly, yesterday.	There are there main positions for adverbs which modify a verb: end, front, and mid position. In end position, the adverb is placed after the verb, either immediately after it or later in the clause: They played quietly all day. He tried to leave quietly. He sat in the corner quietly.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Adverbs – front position in the sentence.	<p>This occurs when some adverbs may occur in the front of a sentence.</p> <p>Already, always, ever, frequently, finally, generally, hardly ever, just, never, not ever, often, occasionally, probably, rarely, sometimes, seldom, usually.</p>	<p>They come in front of simple present and past simple verbs (except “be”)</p> <p>Follow “be” (simple present and simple past).</p>	<p><u>Front position.</u></p> <p>In <i>front position</i> the adverb is placed before the subject: Finally he could stand the noise no longer. Sometimes I feel like going home. Most types of adverb commonly go in front position in a clause. In particular-</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">* Connecting adverbs (e.g. as a result, similarly) which make immediately clear the logical relation to the previous sentence.* Time and place adverbs (e.g. tomorrow, nearby) which give more information about a previous reference to a time or place, or show a contrast.* Comment and viewpoint adverbs(e.g. presumably, financially) which highlight the speaker’s attitude to what they are about to say. <p>However, other positions are possible for these adverbs. Some words can be used both as comment adverbs or adverbs of manner. As comment adverbs the usually go in front position (but can go in other positions) and relate to the whole of the clause; as adverbs of manner they usually go in end position and modify the verb.</p> <p>Other adverbs like this include clearly, curiously, frankly, honestly, oddly, plainly, seriously.</p>
Midsentence adverbs	<p>This occurs when some adverbs may occur in the middle of a sentence. In a question, a midsentence adverb comes directly after the subject.</p>	<p>Already, always, ever, frequently, finally, generally, hardly ever, just, never, not ever, often, occasionally, probably, rarely, sometimes, seldom, usually.</p> <p>They come in front of simple present and past simple verbs (except “be”)</p> <p>Follow “be” (simple present and simple past).</p> <p>Come between a helping verb and a main verb.</p>	<p><u>Mid position.</u></p> <p>In mid position the adverb is placed between the subject and verb, immediately after be as a main verb, or after the first auxiliary verb: He usually plays better than this. They would usually come by car. She is usually here by 10:00.</p> <p>Many adverbs can go in any of these positions, depending on context or style. For example: <i>Slowly</i> he turned round (front). He <i>slowly</i> turned round. (mid). He turned round <i>slowly</i> (end).</p> <p>The following types of adverb usually go in mid position. Degree adverbs (e.g. almost, hardly, nearly, quite, rather, scarcely): The secret lighting was so bad that we almost missed the turning. Although some (e.g. completely, enormously, entirely, greatly, slightly) can go in end position: I greatly admire your work. (or I admire your work greatly.)</p> <p>Notice, however, that some degree adverbs are not usually used in mid position with some verbs. For example, enormously is not usually used in mid position with develop, differ, go up or vary; greatly is not normally used in mid position with care or suffer.</p> <p>Adverbs which indicate the order of events, such as first, last and next. These can also go in end position, but if there is a phrase giving the time of an event they usually go before this: I first met her in 1987. (or I met her first in 1987.) We don’t usually put these in front position, except when we use them to list actions (when we usually follow them with a comma in writing; Next, add three teaspoons of sugar. Adverbs of frequency which say in an indefinite way how often something happens, including hardly ever, often, rarely, regularly, seldom; and also the frequency adverbs always and never: We hardly ever see Derek nowadays, he’s so busy at the office. Notice, however, that adverbial phrases of indefinite frequency (e.g. as a rule, on many occasions, from time to time, every so often) usually go in front or end position: As a rule, I go every six months. (or every six months, as a rule; not I as a rule go..’)</p> <p>We rarely put long adverbials (including clauses and prepositional and noun phrases) in mid position. Usually they go in end position or front position for emphasis: She phone home, anxious for news. (or anxious for news, she phoned home.) He picked up the vase with great care. (or with great care he picked up the vase.) I’d seen Jack the day before. (or The day before I’d seen Jack.)</p>

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Adverbs – end position	<p>This occurs when some adverbs may occur in the end of a sentence. In a question, a . In end position, we usually put an adverb after an object if there is one rather than immediately After the verb:</p> <p>We considered the problem briefly. (not We considered briefly the problem.)</p> <p>However, if an object is very long other positions are possible:</p> <p>We considered briefly the long-term solution to the problem. (or We briefly considered..)</p> <p>We avoid putting an adverb between a main verb and a following –ing form or to infinitive:</p> <p>He began running <i>quickly</i>. Or He <i>quickly</i> began running (not He began quickly running.)</p> <p>She tried to leave <i>quietly</i>. Or She <i>quietly</i> tried to leave. (not She tried quietly to leave.)</p> <p>The position of the adverb can change the meaning of the sentence (see Unit 75A). Compare:</p> <p>I recall telling him clearly that he had won. (= I told him clearly: ‘clearly’ modifies ‘telling him’) and</p> <p>I clearly recall telling him that he had won. (= I clearly recall it; ‘clearly’ modifies ‘recall’)</p> <p>I recall clearly telling him that he had won is also possible, but is ambiguous; it can have either of the two meanings given above. In speech, the meaning intended is usually signalled by intonation.</p>		<p><u>End position.</u></p> <p>When there is more one adverbial (see Glossary) in end position, the usual order in written English is adverbial of manner (=saying how something is done), place, and then time:</p> <p>In the accident she was thrown violently forwards. (=manner + place)</p> <p><i>We arrived here on Saturday.</i> (=place + time).</p> <p>For special emphasis we can move an adverbial to the end:</p> <p>In the accident she was thrown forwards, violently.</p> <p>If one adverbial is much longer than another then it is usually placed last:</p> <p><i>They left at 3:00 with a great deal of noise.</i> (= time + manner)</p> <p>An adverb usually comes before a prepositional phrase when these have the same function (i.e. when they both describe manner, or place, or time):</p> <p><i>She went downstairs to the cellar.</i> (= place + place).</p> <p>End position is usual for many adverbials of place, definite frequency and definite time (including adverbial prepositional phrases):</p> <p><i>They live upstairs.</i> (not They upstairs live). <i>She goes weekly,</i> (not She weekly goes.)</p> <p>Have you heard the good news? <i>Jane had a baby in May.</i> (not Jane in May had a baby)</p> <p>However, adverbs of indefinite time usually go in mid position.</p> <p>Notice that in journalism, other adverbs of time are often used in mid position, where we would normally place them in end (or front) position:</p> <p><i>The government yesterday announced an increase in education spending.</i></p> <p>Most types of adverb commonly go in <u>front position</u> in a clause. In particular –</p> <p>Connecting adverbs (e.g. as a result, similarly) which make immediately clear the logical relation to the previous sentence: The value of the yen has fallen. As a result, Japan faces a crisis.</p> <p>Time and place adverbs (e.g. tomorrow, nearby) which give more information about a previous reference to a time or place, or show a contrast:</p> <p>The last few days have been hot. Tomorrow the weather will be much cooler.</p> <p>Comment and viewpoint adverbs (e.g. presumably, financially) which highlight the speaker’s attitude to what they are about to say.</p> <p>She has just heard that her sister is ill. Presumably, she will want to go home. However, other positions are possible for these adverbs.</p> <p>Some words can be used both as comment adverbs or adverbs of manner. As comment adverbs they usually go in front position (but can go in other positions) and relate to the whole of the clause; as adverbs of manner they usually go in end position and modify the verb. Compare:</p> <p>Naturally, I’ll do all I can to help. & The gas occurs naturally in this area.</p> <p>Others adverbs like this include clearly, curiously, frankly, honestly, oddly, plainly, seriously.</p> <p>Note that for special emphasis or focus, adverbs that usually go in mid position and end position can sometimes be put in front position:</p> <p>In May, Jane had a baby. Regularly, Kim works on several paintings at once.</p> <p>Adverbs of place and direction (or adverbials, particularly prepositional phrases) usually go in end position, but we can put them in front position to emphasise the location. The effect may also be to highlight what comes at the end. (e.g. ‘a body’ in</p>

			<p>the example below). This order is found mainly in formal descriptive writing and reports. Compare: <i>The money was eventually found under the floorboards.</i> (=end) & <i>The police searched the house. Under the floorboards they found a body.</i> (=front)</p> <p>If we put an adverb of place in front position we put the subject after the verb be: <i>Next to the bookshelf was a fireplace,</i> (or less formally <i>Next to the bookshelf there was a fireplace;</i> not <i>Next to the bookshelf a fireplace was.</i>)</p> <p>Note that this doesn't apply when the subject is a pronoun. For example, we can't say 'Next to the bookshelf was it.' We can also put the subject after the verb with intransitive verbs (except with a pronoun subject) used to indicate being in a position or movement to a position, including <i>hang, lie, live, sit, stand, come, fly, go, march, roll, run, swim, walk</i>:</p> <p>Beyond the houses lay open fields, (but compare Beyond the house they lay) Through the town marched the band. (but compare Through the town it marched.) Note that '...open fields lay'...the band marched' (etc) might be used in a literary style.</p> <p>However, we don't usually put the subject after the verb when we talk about actions: if one of these intransitive verbs is followed by an adverb of manner; with other intransitive verbs; or with transitive verbs: Through the waves the boy swam powerfully, (rather than...swam the boy powerfully.) Outside the church the choir sang. (rather than...sang the choir) In the garden John built a play house for the children (not In the garden built John..)</p> <p>When we put certain adverbs of time in front position the subject must come after an auxiliary verb or a main verb be: At not time would he admit that his team played badly. Not once was she at home when I phoned.</p> <p>If the main verb is not be and there is no auxiliary, we use do, although inversion is not necessary in this case: Only later did she realise how much damage had been cause.</p> <p>Adverbs like this include negative adverbials such as at no time, hardly ever, not once, only later, rarely, and seldom. Notice also that we can put first, next, now and then in front position with the verb come to introduce a new event, when the subject follows the verb. But it a comma (or an intonation break in speech is used after first etc.) the verb follows the subject. Compare: At first there was silence. Then came a voice that I knew. (not Then a voice came..) and At first there was silence. Then, a voice came that I knew.</p> <p>Adverbs of time which indicate a definite point or period in time or a definite frequency, usually go in end position, or front position for emphasis, but not in mid position. Note that when these adverbs are in front position there is no inversion of subject and verb: I went to Paris yesterday. (or Yesterday I went ot Paris) We meet for lunch once a week. (or Once a week we meet for lunch.)</p> <p>Note that the adverbs daily, hourly, monthly, weekly, annually, quarterly (= four times a year), etc. only go in end position: The train leaves hourly. (not hourly the train leaves; not The train hourly leaves.) I pay my subscription annually. (not Annually I pay...: not I annually pay..)</p>
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Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Conjunctive adverb	A word that modifies a verb, and adjective, a phrase or a clause. Can be found in various places within the sentence.	Form: also, consequently, finally, hence, furthermore, meanwhile, next, otherwise, then, thus, however, incidentally, indeed, instead, likewise, nevertheless, nonetheless, still, therefore.	Can be used as a conjunctive adverb to join two clauses together. Is not strong enough to join two independent clauses without the aid of a semicolon.
Adverbs of time or frequency	They tell us how often something happens. They are placed before the main verb but after the verb to be.	Form: <i>Frequency</i> : always (100%), usually (75%), often (50%), sometimes (25%), never (0%), <i>time</i> : tomorrow, yesterday, today, soon, yet. e.g. "He usually goes to the cinema at the weekend".	They are used to express time or frequency.

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 8 The Adverb.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use								
Adverb of manner		<p>Some adverbs of manner (saying how something is done) are formed from an adjective + -ly. e.g. sudden -> suddenly. When an adjective already ends in -ly we don't add -ly to it to make an adverb. Instead we can use a prepositional phrase with fashion, manner or way.</p> <p>Most participle adjectives ending in -ed don't have an adverb form and so we use a prepositional phrase instead:</p> <p>e.g. They rose to greet me in a subdued manner.</p> <p>or we use a preposition and a related noun if there is one.</p> <p>e.g. She looked at me in amazement.</p> <p>However, some do have an adverb form with -ly.</p> <p>e.g. The storm was unexpected. -> The weather turned unexpectedly stormy.</p> <p>Some adverbs have two forms, one ending in -ly and the other not. We can sometimes use either of the two forms of the adverb without changing the meaning, although the form ending in -ly is grammatically correct and more usual in a formal style:</p> <p>e.g. She ran quick/quickly towards the door.</p> <p>and must be used if the adverb comes immediately before the verb.</p> <p>e.g. She quickly ran towards the door.</p> <p>Some adverbs of manner (saying how something is done) are formed from an adjective + -ly:</p> <p>sudden -> suddenly, happy -> happily, etc. When an adjective already ends in -ly (e.g. cowardly, elderly, friendly, kindly, lively, lonely, lovely) we don't add -ly to it to make an adverb. Instead we can use a prepositional phrase with fashion, manner, or way:</p> <p>He smiled at me in a friendly way. She waved her hands around in a lively fashion.</p> <p>Most participle adjectives ending in -ed, don't have an adverb form and so we use a prepositional phrase instead:</p> <p>They rose to greet me in a subdued manner. (not..subduedly.)</p> <p>He faced the court in a dignified fashion. (not..dignifiedly.)</p> <p>Or we use a preposition and a related noun if there is one:</p> <p>She looked at me in amazement. (not..amazedly.)</p> <p>He was overwhelmed with confusion. (not...confusedly.)</p> <p>However, some do have an adverb form with -ly. Compare:</p> <p>The storm was unexpected & The weather turned unexpectedly stormy.</p> <p>Other adverbs like this include agitatedly, allegedly, deservedly, determinedly, disappointedly, excitedly, hurriedly, pointedly, repeatedly, reportedly, reputedly, supposedly, worriedly.</p>	<p>We use some to make a comment on what we are saying:</p> <table><tr><th>some comment adverbs...</th><th>example</th></tr><tr><td>indicate how likely we think something is</td><td>apparently, certainly, clearly, definitely, obviously, presumably, probably, undoubtedly</td></tr><tr><td>indicate our attitude to or opinion of what is said</td><td>astonishingly, frankly, generally, honestly, interestingly, luckily, naturally, sadly, seriously, surprisingly, unbelievably</td></tr><tr><td>show our judgement of someone's actions</td><td>bravely, carelessly, foolishly, generously, kindly, rightly, stupidly, wisely, wrongly</td></tr></table> <p>Comment adverbs often apply to the whole sentence and are most frequently used in front position, although they can also be used at the end of the sentence and in other positions. At the beginning and end of sentences we usually separate them from the rest of the sentence by a comma in writing or by intonation in speech:</p> <p>Presumably, he didn't hear me when I called.</p> <p>The book was based on his experience in China, apparently.</p> <p>Jackson believes that child development can be slowed down by poor nutrition. This is undoubtedly the case.</p> <p>Comment adverbs which show judgement usually follow the subject, although they can be put in front position for emphasis:</p> <p>He kindly offered to take me to the station. (or kindly, he offered..to emphasise 'kindly')</p> <p>If comment adverbs apply to only part of the sentence they can be used in other positions, compare:</p> <p>Astonishingly, she did well in the exam. (= I was surprised that she did well)</p> <p>She did astonishingly well in the exam. (= she did very well)</p> <p>You've had a major operation. Obviously, it will be very painful for a while. (= I expect you to know this already)</p> <p>When he stood up it was obviously very painful. (the pain was clear to see)</p> <p>Some adverbs are used to make clear what viewpoint we are speaking from; that is, identifying what features of something are being talked about:</p> <p>Financially, the accident has been a disaster for the owners of the tunnel,</p> <p>The brothers may be alike physically, but they have very different personalities.</p> <p>Other examples include biologically, environmentally, financially, ideologically, industrially, logically, medically, morally, outwardly, politically, technically, visually.</p> <p>A number of phrases are used in a similar way. For example:</p> <p>Politically speaking - - in political terms - in terms in politics - from a political point of view -</p>	some comment adverbs...	example	indicate how likely we think something is	apparently, certainly, clearly, definitely, obviously, presumably, probably, undoubtedly	indicate our attitude to or opinion of what is said	astonishingly, frankly, generally, honestly, interestingly, luckily, naturally, sadly, seriously, surprisingly, unbelievably	show our judgement of someone's actions	bravely, carelessly, foolishly, generously, kindly, rightly, stupidly, wisely, wrongly
some comment adverbs...	example										
indicate how likely we think something is	apparently, certainly, clearly, definitely, obviously, presumably, probably, undoubtedly										
indicate our attitude to or opinion of what is said	astonishingly, frankly, generally, honestly, interestingly, luckily, naturally, sadly, seriously, surprisingly, unbelievably										
show our judgement of someone's actions	bravely, carelessly, foolishly, generously, kindly, rightly, stupidly, wisely, wrongly										

		<p>Some adverbs have two forms, one ending in –ly and the other not. We can sometimes use either of the two forms of the adverb without changing the meaning, although the form ending in –ly is grammatically correct and more usual in a formal style:</p> <p>She ran quick/quickly towards the door. (‘quick’ is less formal) And must be used if the adverb comes immediately before the verb: She quickly ran towards the door. (not She quick ran...) Other words like this include cheap(ly), clean (ly), fine(ly), loud(ly), slow(ly), thin (ly).</p> <p>In other cases there is difference in the meaning of the adverb with and without –ly. Compare: She gave her time free. (= for no money) & She gave her time freely. (= willingly) I arrived late for the concert. (= not on time) & I haven’t seen John lately. (= recently)</p>	<p>As far as politics are concerned. Politically/in political terms, this summer is a crucial time for the government. Financially/from a financial point of view, it is a good investment.</p> <p>Some adverbs or phrases are used to say whose viewpoint we are expressing: The head of National North Bank is to receive, according to newspaper reports, a 50% salary increase. In my view, the Foreign Minister should resign immediately. Other examples include to my/his/her (etc.) knowledge, from my/his/her (etc.) perspective, personally, in my/his/her (etc.) opinion.</p>
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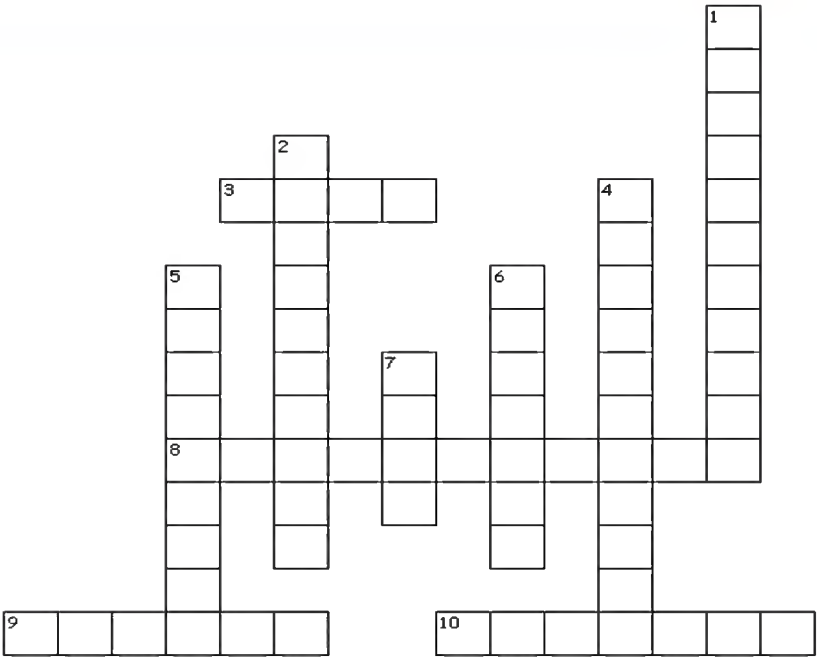
Section 9 The Speech

Unit 1. Grammar. Section 9 The reported speech.

Term or concept	Meaning in Language	Form and example	Use
Direct speech	This repeats through quotes, the exact words spoken. You can answer the question "What did he/she say?" in this case, by repeating the words spoken (<i>direct speech</i>).	It forms placing the words spoken between inverted commas ("...") and there is no change in these words. It may be reporting something that's being said now (for example a telephone conversation), or telling someone later about a previous conversation. Examples: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>She says "What time will you be home?"</i>• <i>She said "What time will you be home?" and I said "I don't know!"</i>• <i>"There's a fly in my soup!" screamed Simone.</i>• <i>John said, "There's an elephant outside the window."</i>	Is used to indicate the exact words spoken. It may be reporting something that's being said now or telling something later about a previous conversation.
Indirect speech	Or called reported speech too. You can answer the question "What did he/she say?" by reporting the words spoken (<i>indirect or reported speech</i>).	e.g. "He told me his name was Ron. Peter asked Sue what she meant". e.g. "She told him that she was happy".	The words someone uses when they are telling someone what somebody else said or asked. Used to report or talk about the past so we normally change the tense of the spoken words. We use reporting verbs like 'say', 'tell', 'ask', and we may use the word 'that' to introduce the reported words. Inverted commas are not used. <ul style="list-style-type: none">• She said, "I saw him." She said that she had seen him. 'That' may be omitted: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• She told him that she was happy.• She told him she was happy. 'Say' and 'tell': <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Use 'say' when there is no indirect object:• He said that he was tired.• Always use 'tell' when you say who was being spoken to (i.e. with an indirect object):• He told me that he was tired. 'Talk' and 'speak' are used: <ul style="list-style-type: none">- to describe the action of communicating:<ul style="list-style-type: none">• He talked to us.• She was speaking on the telephone.- with 'about' to refer to what was said:<ul style="list-style-type: none">• He talked (to us) about his parents.

EXERCISE 1. WORKSHEET 1

Complete the puzzle with parts of speech.



Across

- 3. A word used to show an action, state, event or process, e.g. ‘I like cheese.’; ‘He speaks Italian.’
- 8. A word used to connect words, phrases, clauses or sentences, e.g. ‘I like tea but I don’t like coffee because it’s too strong for me.’
- 9. A word that describes or gives more information about how, when, where or to what degree something is done, e.g. ‘He worked quickly and well.’
- 10. A word that replaces or refers to a noun or a noun phrase just mentioned, e.g. ‘I saw John yesterday. He looked very well.’

Down

- 1. An expression used to show a strong feeling, e.g. Oh! Wow!
- 2. A word which makes clear which noun is referred to or to give information about quantity, e.g. this, that, some, any, my, that car is mine.
- 4. ‘On’ ‘under’ ‘over,’ for example
- 5. A word that describes or gives more information about a noun or pronoun, e.g. a cold day.
- 6. ‘The’, ‘a’, ‘an’, for example
- 7. A person, place or thing, e.g. elephant, girl, grass, school

EXERCISE 2 – WORKSHEET 2

Look at the underlined words in the sentences below and match them with the words from Participant’s worksheet 1, given in the box.

noun	conjunction	adverb	pronoun	exclamation	determiner	verb	preposition	adjective	article
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- A. (1) She (2) always moves the (3) furniture when she does the (4) housework.
- B. (5) Robert is (6) taller than James and (7) his hair is longer.
- C. (8) Can you buy a (9) good (10) book for Jim?
- D. I'll give it to (11) him for his birthday (12) tomorrow?
- E. (13) Ouch! You're (14) standing on (15) my foot.
- F. John (16) saw Fred last week (17) in town. I (18) didn't see him myself but he (19) said he was carrying (20) a suitcase.

KEY TO PARTICIPANT’S WORKSHEET 2

Question	Exercise 1		Exercise 2	
1.	She	pronoun	subject	pronoun, personal pronoun
2.	always	adverb	adverb of frequency	
3.	furniture	noun	uncountable	noun, collective noun
4.	housework	noun	uncountable	noun, compound noun
5.	Robert	noun	proper	noun
6.	taller	adjective	comparative	adjective
7.	his	pronoun; determiner	possessive	pronoun, determiner
8.	Can	verb	modal verb, modal auxiliary	
9.	good	adjective	adjective	
10.	book	noun	countable	noun

- 11.him pronoun; determiner object pronoun
12. tomorrow adverb adverb of time
- 13.Ouch! exclamation exclamation
- 14.standing verb intransitive verb
- 15.my adjective possessive adjective
- 16.saw verb transitive verb
- 17.in preposition preposition of place
- 18.didn't verb auxiliary verb
- 19.said verb reporting verb
20. a article indefinite article

EXERCISE 3

TKT MODULE 1: DESCRIBING LANGUAGE: GRAMMAR – ANSWER KEYS

Key to Participant’s worksheet 1

5A

D

J

E

8C

T

I

V

3V

E

T

E

R

M

I

O

N

J

E

R

2D

R

B

7N

O

N

6A

R

T

I

L

E

4P

R

E

P

O

S

I

O

1E

X

C

L

A

M

A

T

I

O

N

9A

D

V

E

R

B

10P

R

O

N

O

U

N

Across:
3: verb; 8: conjunction;9: adverb; 10: pronoun Down:
1: exclamation; 2: determiner; 4:preposition; 5: adjective; 6: article; 7: noun

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